

Groups

Based on Lectures and "Algebra and Geometry"

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Groups and Permutations

1 Definition of Groups

Definition 1.1 (Group). A group is a set G together with a binary operation $*$: $G \times G \rightarrow G$ that

1. (Closure) $\forall g, h \in G, g * h$,
2. (Identity) $\exists e \in G, \forall g \in G, e * g = g * e = g$,
3. (Inverse) $\forall g \in G, \exists g^{-1} \in G, g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = e$,
4. (Associativity) $\forall g, h, k \in G, (g * h) * k = g * (h * k)$.

Remark. The inverse of g is unique, for if there are two g', g'' , both are inverses of g , we have

$$g' = g'' * g * g' = g''.$$

Example. (1) $G = \{e\}$, the trivial group,

- (2) $G = \{\text{symmetries of } \triangle\}$,
- (3) $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$,
- (4) $(\mathbb{R}, +), (\mathbb{Q}, +), (\mathbb{C}, +)$,
- (5) $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}; (\mathbb{R}^*, \times)$,
- (6) $(\mathbb{Z}_n, + \pmod{n}), \mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$,
- (7) Vector spaces with addition of vectors,
- (8) $(\text{GL}_2(\mathbb{R}), \text{matrix multiplication})$, set of invertible 2×2 matrices,

Example (non-examples). (1) $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$, since it is not closed,

- (2) (\mathbb{Z}, \times) , since some inverses do not exist,
- (3) $(\mathbb{R}, *)$, where $r * s = r^2 s$, since there is no identity,
- (4) $(\mathbb{N}, *)$, $n * m = |n - m|$. Associativity fails.

Here \mathbb{N} is the set of all positive numbers, and it remains this definition unless specified otherwise.

2 Properties of Groups

Proposition 2.1. Let G be a group, then we have

1. The identity is unique.
2. The inverse is unique.
3. $gh = g \wedge hg = g \Rightarrow h = e$.
4. $gh = e \Rightarrow hg = e, h = g^{-1}$.

$$5. (g^{-1})^{-1} = g.$$

Definition 2.1. A group G is called *abelian* if $\forall g, h \in G, gh = hg$.

Definition 2.2. G is said to be *finite* if it has finitely many elements. Denote $|G|$ as its number of elements.

Definition 2.3. Let $(G, *)$ be a group. A subset $H \subseteq G$ is called a *subgroup* of G if $(H, *)$ is a group, written as $H \leq G$.

Remark. To check $H \leq G$, simply check closure, identity, and inverses. Associativity is inherited.

Proposition 2.2. Let e_H, e_G be the identities in H and G respectively, then $e_H = e_G$.

Example. (1) $\{e\} \leq G$.

$$(2) G \leq G.$$

$$(3) (\mathbb{Z}, +) \leq (\mathbb{Q}, +) \leq (\mathbb{R}, +) \leq (\mathbb{C}, +).$$

Lemma 2.1 (subgroup test). Let G be a group, then $H \leq G \Leftrightarrow H \neq \emptyset \wedge \forall a, b \in H, ab^{-1} \in H$.

Proof. Since $gg^{-1} = e \in H$, identity is satisfied. Since $\forall a, b \in H, a(b^{-1})^{-1} = ab \in H$, closure is satisfied. $\forall g \in H, eg^{-1} = g^{-1} \in H$, inverse is satisfied. \square

Proposition 2.3. The subgroups of $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ are precisely $(n\mathbb{Z}, +)$.

Proved by considering the minimal element.

Usual laws:

Proposition 2.4. (1) Let H, K be subgroups of G then $H \cap K \leq G$.

$$(2) K \leq H \wedge H \leq G \Rightarrow K \leq G.$$

$$(3) K \subseteq H, H \leq G, K \leq G \Rightarrow K \leq H.$$

Definition 2.4. If $X \neq \emptyset$ is a subset of group G , the subgroup *generated* by X , written as $\langle X \rangle$, is the intersection of all subgroups containing X .

Remark. • $e \in \langle X \rangle$.

$$\bullet X \subseteq \langle X \rangle.$$

• $\langle X \rangle$ contains all possible products of elements of X and their inverses.

Proposition 2.5. Let $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq G$. Then $\langle X \rangle$ is the set of elements of G of the form

$$x_1^{\alpha_1} x_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots x_k^{\alpha_k}, \quad x_i \in X, \alpha_i \in \{-1, 1\}, k \geq 0.$$

Proof. Let T be such a set. Then by definition $T \subseteq \langle X \rangle$. On the other hand, $X \subseteq T \Rightarrow \langle X \rangle \subseteq T$ since T clearly forms a subgroup. Hence $T = \langle X \rangle$. \square

3 Homomorphisms

3.1 Definition and basic properties

Definition 3.1. Let $(G, *_G), (H, *_H)$ be groups. A function $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ is a *homomorphism* if

$$\forall a, b \in H, \varphi(a *_H b) = \varphi(a) *_G \varphi(b).$$

It is called an *isomorphism* if it is bijective.

Proposition 3.1. Let $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ be a homomorphism.

- (1) $\varphi(e_H) = e_G$.
- (2) $\varphi(h^{-1}) = \varphi(h)^{-1}$.
- (3) If $\psi : G \rightarrow K$ is also a homomorphism, then $\psi\varphi : H \rightarrow K$ is a homomorphism.

Proposition 3.2. Let $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ be an isomorphism. Then φ^{-1} is also an isomorphism and this implies that

$$G \cong H \iff H \cong G.$$

3.2 Images and Kernels

Definition 3.2. The *image* of a homomorphism $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ is

$$\text{Im}(\varphi) = \{g \in G : \exists h \in H, \varphi(h) = g\}.$$

The *kernel* of φ is

$$\ker(\varphi) = \{h \in H : \varphi(h) = e_G\}.$$

Lecture 4.

We have two immediate consequences:

Proposition 3.3. $\text{Im}(\varphi), \ker(\varphi)$ are subgroups of G, H respectively.

Proof. Take $\text{Im}(\varphi)$ as an example. Use lemma 2.1: $\text{Im}(\varphi)$ is non-empty since $\varphi(e_H) = e_G$. For any $a, b \in \text{Im}(\varphi)$, we have $a = \varphi(h), b = \varphi(h')$ for $h, h' \in H$. Hence

$$ab^{-1} = \varphi(h)\varphi(h')^{-1} = \varphi(hh'^{-1}) \in \text{Im}(\varphi).$$

Hence $\text{Im}(\varphi)$ is a subgroup. It is similar for $\ker(\varphi)$. □

Example. (0) Let $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ be the trivial homomorphism, i.e. $\varphi(h) \equiv e_G$. Then $\text{Im}(\varphi) = \{e_G\}$ and $\ker(\varphi) = H$.

- (1) Let $\iota : H \rightarrow G$, where $H \leq G$, be the inclusion map. Then $\text{Im}(\iota) = H, \ker(\iota) = \{e_H\}$.
- (2) $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n, \varphi(k) = k \pmod{n}$. $\text{Im}(\varphi) = \mathbb{Z}_n, \ker(\varphi) = n\mathbb{Z}$.

Proposition 3.4. Let $\varphi : H \rightarrow G$ be a homomorphism.

- (1) φ is surjective if and only if $\text{Im} \varphi = G$,
- (2) φ is injective if and only if $\ker \varphi = \{e\}$.

Proof. By definition, (1) holds.

Suppose φ is injective. Take $h \in \ker \varphi$. Then $\varphi(h) = \varphi(e) = e_G \Leftrightarrow h = e$. Conversely suppose $\ker \varphi = \{e\}$. Take a, b such that $\varphi(a) = \varphi(b)$. We have

$$\varphi(ab^{-1}) = \varphi(a)\varphi(b)^{-1} = e_G.$$

Thus $ab^{-1} = e_G \Leftrightarrow a = b$ and φ is injective. \square

4 Direct product of groups

Definition 4.1. The *direct product* of two groups G, H is the set $G \times H$ with the operation of component-wise composition:

$$(g_1, h_1) * (g_2, h_2) := (g_1 *_G g_2, h_1 *_H h_2).$$

Closure and identity are easily verified. The inverse is component-wise and associativity is inherited from G, H .

Remark. $G \times H$ contains subgroups isomorphic to G and H , i.e., $G \times \{e_H\}$ and $\{e_G\} \times H$.

Example. $\mathbb{Z} \times \{-1, 1\}$ has elements $(n, \pm 1), n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $(n, -1) * (m, -1) = (n + m, (-1)(-1)) = (n + m, 1)$, etc. Addition in the first component and multiplication in the second.

The identity of $\mathbb{Z} \times \{-1, 1\}$ is $(0, 1)$.

Remark. In $G \times H$, everything in (the isomorphic copy of) G *commutes* with everything in (the isomorphic copy of) H . That is to say,

$$\forall (g, e_H), (e_G, h), (g, e_H) * (e_G, h) = (e_G, h) * (g, e_H) = (g, h).$$

Theorem 4.1 (Direct Product Theorem). Let $H, K \leq G$ such that

- (1) $H \cap K = \{e\}$: they are *disjoint*,
- (2) $\forall h, k, hk = kh$: they are *commutative*,
- (3) $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in H, k \in K, g = hk$: $G = HK$.

Then $G \cong H \times K$.

Proof. Consider the function $\varphi : H \times K \rightarrow G$ defined by $\varphi(h, k) = hk$. Note that

$$\varphi(h, k) * \varphi(h', k') = hh'kk' = hh'kk' = \varphi(hh', kk') = \varphi((h, k) * (h', k')),$$

so φ is a homomorphism. From (3) we know that φ is surjective. Let $\varphi(h, k) = e$, then $hk = e \Leftrightarrow h = k^{-1}$. Hence $h, k^{-1} \in H \cap K$ so $h = k = e$. Hence it is injective. Thus φ is an isomorphism and $G \cong H \times K$. \square

This gives us two ways to think about direct products:

- Given two groups H, K , one can form their direct products $H \times K$ and view H, K as subgroups via $H \times \{e_K\}$ and $\{e_H\} \times K$.
- Given a group G with subgroups H, K that satisfy these conditions, then we are equivalently dealing with $H \times K$.

By convention, we can simply regard $H \times \{e_K\}, \{e_H\} \times K$ as H, K .

5 Important Examples

5.1 Cyclic groups

Definition 5.1. Let G be a group and let $X \subseteq G, X \neq \emptyset$. If $\langle X \rangle = G$, then X is called a *generating set*¹ of G .
 G is *cyclic* if $\exists a \in G$ such that $\langle a \rangle = G$. In this case, $\forall b \in G, \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, b = a^k$. a is called a *generator* of G .

¹ It is not necessary unique.

Example. (0) Trivial group $\{e\} = \langle e \rangle$.

$$(1) (\mathbb{Z}, +) = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle -1 \rangle.$$

$$(2) (\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n) = \langle 1 \rangle = \langle k \rangle, \text{ where } (k, n) = 1.$$

$$(3) E = \left(\left\{ e^{\frac{2\pi i k}{n}} : 0 \leq k \leq n-1 \right\}, \cdot \right) = \langle e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}} \rangle, \text{ where } (m, n) = 1.$$

Hence, $E \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$.

$$(4) \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\} \text{ with}$$

$$a^k * a^j = \begin{cases} a^{k+j} & \text{if } k+j < n, \\ a^{k+j-n} & \text{if } k+j \geq n. \end{cases}$$

Again, it is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_n .

Write $C_n = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\}$. Then every cyclic group is isomorphic to C_n and we can write all cyclic groups in this form, or $\cong \mathbb{Z}$, which is the infinite case.

Lecture 5

Theorem 5.1. A cyclic group G is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z} or C_n for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Let $G = \langle b \rangle$. Suppose that $\exists n, b^n = e$. Take the smallest n . Define $\varphi : C_n = \{e, a, a^2, \dots, a^{n-1}\} \rightarrow G$ by $\varphi(a^k) = b^k (0 \leq k \leq n-1)$. Then $\forall a^j, a^k \in C_n, j, k < n$, we have

$$\varphi(a^j \cdot a^k) = \varphi(a^{j+k}) = b^{j+k} = b^j * b^k = \varphi(a^j) * \varphi(a^k).$$

If $j+k \geq n$,

$$\varphi(a^j \cdot a^k) = \varphi(a^{j+k-n}) = b^{j+k-n} = b^{j+k} * (b^n)^{-1} = b^{j+k} = \varphi(a^j) * \varphi(a^k).$$

Hence φ is a homomorphism. Since $b^n = e$, φ is surjective. Suppose $\varphi(a^k) = e \Leftrightarrow b^k = e \Leftrightarrow k = 0$, since $0 \leq k \leq n-1$. Otherwise $\#$ to minimality of n .

If no such n exists, then define $\varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow G$ by $\varphi(k) = b^k$. Note that

$$\varphi(k+m) = b^{k+m} = b^k * b^m = \varphi(k) * \varphi(m).$$

Also $\forall b^k \in G = \langle b \rangle, \varphi(k) = b^k$, and if $m \in \ker \varphi$, then $\varphi(m) = e = b^m \wedge \varphi(-m) = e$.

If $m \neq 0$, then $\#$ to the assumption that $\nexists n, b^n = e$.

Therefore, $G \cong \mathbb{Z} \vee G \cong C_n$. \square

Definition 5.2. The *order* of an element $g \in G$ is the smallest $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that $g^n = e$. If no such n exists, we say g has an *infinite order*. The order of g is written as $\text{ord } g$.

Proposition 5.1. If $g^m = e, m > 0$, then $\text{ord } g \mid m$.

Proof. If not, then $m = q \operatorname{ord} g + r$ for some $q, r \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $0 \leq r \leq \operatorname{ord} g - 1$, $\#$. \square

Remark. Given $g \in G$, the subgroup $\langle g \rangle \cong C_n$ if $\operatorname{ord} g = n$, and $\cong \mathbb{Z}$ if $\operatorname{ord} g = \infty$. Hence $\operatorname{ord} g = |\langle g \rangle|$.

Proposition 5.2. Cyclic groups are abelian.

5.2 Dihedral Groups

Definition 5.3. The *dihedral group* D_{2n} is the group of symmetries of a regular n -gon, the operation is composition of symmetries.

Example. $D_6 =$ symmetries of \triangle .

What are the elements of D_{2n} ?

Clearly we have n rotations of angles

$$\frac{2\pi k}{n}, \quad 0 \leq k < n.$$

- When n is odd, we have n reflections in axes through the centre and each of the vertices.
- When n is even, we have $n/2$ reflections in axes through centre and pairs of opposite vertices. Another $n/2$ reflections in axes through pairs of opposite mid-points of edges.

Assert that these are all the elements of D_{2n} . Indeed, let $g \in D_{2n}$. Since g is a symmetry, then g must send vertices to vertices, e.g., $g(v_1) = v_i$. g must also send edges to edges, so v_2, v_n must be sent to $\{v_{i-1}, v_{i+1}\}$. Note that once we know where $g(v_1), g(v_2)$, then $g(v_n)$ is determined. *Inductively*, all other $g(v_j)$ are determined, and hence g is known. Since there are n choices for v_1 and 2 choices for v_2 , so we have $2n$ elements in total. Hence there are no other elements.

It can be checked easily that D_{2n} is a group.

Remark. Can generate D_{2n} by a rotation and a reflection. Let r be the rotation $\frac{2\pi}{n}$ and s be the reflection in axis through v_1 and centre, then r^k give all rotations. Consider $r^i s r^{-i}$:

$$\begin{aligned} r^i s r^{-i} : v_{i+1} &\mapsto v_1 \mapsto v_1 \mapsto v_{i+1}, \\ v_{i+2} &\mapsto v_2 \mapsto v_n \mapsto v_i, \\ v_i &\mapsto v_n \mapsto v_2 \mapsto v_{i+2} \mapsto v_{i+2}. \end{aligned}$$

The form $r^i s r^{-i}$ is called *conjugation* and allows us to change the axis of operation.

We get reflection in axis through v_{i+1} and centre. If n is even, consider

$$\begin{aligned} r^{i+1} s r^{-i} : v_{i+1} &\mapsto v_1 \mapsto v_1 \mapsto v_{i+2}, \\ v_{i+2} &\mapsto v_2 \mapsto v_n \mapsto v_{i+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence they give all symmetries and $D_{2n} = \langle r, s \rangle$ and $rs = sr^{-1}$, so it is not abelian.

5.3 Presentation

One way to write groups is via a *presentation*:

$$\langle \text{generators} \mid \text{relation between generators} \rangle.$$

For example, $C_n = \langle a \mid a^n = e \rangle$, and $D_{2n} = \langle r, s \mid r^n = e, s^2 = e, rs = sr^{-1} \rangle$.

Should be able to deduce all the properties in the group from the relations in the presentation. In general it is not easy to write down a presentation for a given group, or to determine the group from a given presentation. E.g.,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle a, b, c | aba^{-1}b^{-1} &= b, bcb^{-1}c^{-1} = c, cac^{-1}a^{-1} = a \rangle \\ \langle a, b, c, d | aba^{-1}b^{-1} &= b, bcb^{-1}c^{-1} = c, cdc^{-1}d^{-1} = d, dad^{-1}a^{-1} = a \rangle \end{aligned}$$

The first group is simply $\{e\}$ but the second group, known as Higman group, is very non-trivial.

5.4 Permutation groups

Definition 5.4. Given a set X , a *permutation* of X is a bijective function $\sigma : X \rightarrow X$. The set of all permutations of X is denoted by $\text{Sym } X$.

Of course we have

Theorem 5.2. $\text{Sym } X$ forms a group wrt compositions.

Definition 5.5. If $|X| = n$, we write S_n for (the isomorphism class of) $\text{Sym } X$. S_n is called *symmetric group* on n elements.

Remark. $|S_n| = n!$. Usually use $X = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ to study S_n .

One way to write permutations is using a two-row notation. For example, consider $\sigma \in S_3$ such that $\sigma(1) = 2, \sigma(2) = 3, \sigma(3) = 1$ can be represented as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In general, write $\sigma \in S_n$ as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \\ \sigma(1) & \sigma(2) & \sigma(3) & \cdots & \sigma(n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Given a permutation that "cycles" some elements $a_1, \dots, a_k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and leaves the other unchanged, then we can write as

$$(a_1 a_2 \dots a_k) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \cdots & a_k \\ \sigma(a_1) & \sigma(a_2) & \sigma(a_3) & \cdots & \sigma(a_k) \end{pmatrix}.$$

So in general,

$$(a_1 \dots a_k)(x) = \begin{cases} a_{i+1} & \text{if } x = a_i (i < k) \\ a_1 & \text{if } x = a_k \\ x & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $(a_1 \dots a_k) = (a_2 \dots a_k a_1) = \dots$.

Definition 5.6. A permutation of the form $\sigma = (a_1 \dots a_k)$ is called a *k-cycle*. If $k = 2$ then it is called a *transposition*.

Example. (1). Consider $(1234)(324)$. $1 \mapsto 2, 2 \mapsto 1, 3 \mapsto 3, 4 \mapsto 4$. Hence

$$(1234)(324) = (12).$$

(2). In S_5 , $(254)(534) = (1)(253)(4) = (253)$.

Remark. (1). The inverse of $(a_1 \dots a_k)$ is $(a_k a_{k-1} \dots a_1)$.

(2). $S_3 = D_6$, but in general $D_{2n} \leq S_n$.

Definition 5.7. (1). Two cycles are *disjoint* if no element appears in both of them.

(2). $g, h \in G$ are *commute* if $gh = hg$ in G .

Lemma 5.3. Disjoint cycles commute.

Note that S_n is non-abelian for $n \geq 3$.

Proof. Let $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$ such that σ, τ are disjoint. Let $x \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

If x is in neither of σ, τ , then $\sigma\tau(x) = \tau\sigma(x)$. If $x \in \tau$ but not in σ , then $\tau(x) \in \tau \notin \sigma$, so $\sigma\tau(x) = \tau\sigma(x) = \tau(x)$. Similar for $x \in \sigma, x \notin \tau$. \square

Theorem 5.4. Any $\sigma \in S_n$ can be written as a composition of disjoint cycles, and this representation is unique up to reordering cycles, and "cycling" of cycles.

Proof. Take $\sigma \in S_n$ and consider $1, \sigma(1), \sigma^2(1), \dots$. Since $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is finite, $\exists a > b, \sigma^a(1) = \sigma^b(1)$, so that $\sigma^{a-b}(1) = 1$. Let k be the smallest integer that $\sigma^k(1) = 1$. Then $\forall l > m \in [0, k]$, if $\sigma^l(1) = \sigma^m(1)$ then $\sigma^{l-m} = 1$, contradicting with the minimality of k , so $1, \sigma(1), \dots, \sigma^{k-1}(1)$ are distinct. This cycle

$$(1 \ \sigma(1) \ \sigma^2(1) \ \dots \ \sigma^{k-1}(1))$$

is the first cycle in decomposition. We can repeat this with the next number in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ that has not already appeared.

Since σ is a bijection, no number can reappear. Continue with this we exhaust $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and we get

$$(1 \ \sigma(1) \ \dots \ \sigma^{k-1}(1)) (a \ \sigma(a) \ \dots \ \sigma^{k-1}(a)) \dots$$

Hence it exists. To show it is unique, suppose we have to decompositions:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= (a_1 \ \dots \ a_{k_1}) (a_{k_2} \ \dots \ a_{k_3}) \dots (a_{k_{n-1}} \ \dots \ a_{k_n}) \\ &= (b_1 \ \dots \ b_{l_1}) (b_{l_2} \ \dots \ b_{l_3}) \dots (b_{l_{s-1}} \ \dots \ b_{l_s}), \end{aligned}$$

so each $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ appears exactly once in both. Then we have $a_1 = b_t$ for some t , and the other numbers appearing in the cycle of b_t are uniquely determined by $\sigma(a_1), \sigma^2(a_1), \dots$. So

$$(a_1 \ \dots \ a_{k_1}) \dots = (b_t \ \dots) \dots$$

since disjoint cycles commute and we can cycle cycles. Continue in this way, we see that all other cycles match. \square

Definition 5.8. The set of cycle lengths of the disjoint cycle decomposition of σ is its *cycle type* of σ .

Example. $(123)(56)$ has cycle type 3,2(or 2,3).

Theorem 5.5. The order of $\sigma \in S_n$ is the lcm of the cycle length in its cycle type.

Proof. Firstly note that the order of a k -cycle is k . Suppose $\sigma = \tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_r$, where τ_i are disjoint cycles, we have

$$\sigma^m = \tau_1^m \tau_2^m \cdots \tau_r^m,$$

since disjoint cycles commute. Let each τ_i be a k_i -cycle, then if $\sigma^m = e$, we have $\tau_1^m, \tau_2^m, \dots, \tau_r^m = e$, and so $\tau_1^m = \tau_2^{-m} \tau_3^{-m} \cdots \tau_r^{-m}$. The numbers permuted by LHS and RHS are disjoint since τ_i are disjoint, so LHS, RHS must be e . So $\tau_1^m = e$ and $k_1 | m$.

This holds for any k_i and $k_i | m$, so $l = \text{lcm}(k_1, \dots, k_r) | \text{ord}(\sigma)$. But if we take

$$\sigma^l = \tau_1^l \tau_2^l \cdots \tau_r^l = \prod_{i=1}^r (\tau_i^{k_i})^{l/k_i} = e.$$

So $\text{ord}(\sigma) = \text{lcm}(k_1, \dots, k_r)$. \square

Remark. Disjoint cycle notation allows us to quickly compare elements of S_n , and to read off their orders.

Disjoint cycle notation is just one useful way to express elements of S_n . Another is as a product of transpositions:

Proposition 5.3. Let $\sigma \in S_n$, then σ is a product of transpositions.

Proof. By theorem 5.4, it's enough to do this for a cycle. We observe that

$$(a_1 a_2 a_3 \cdots a_k) = (a_1 a_2)(a_2 a_3) \cdots (a_{k-1} a_k).$$

\square

Remark. This is not unique. e.g., $(1234) = (12)(23)(34) = (12)(23)(12)(34)(12)$. But the *parity* of the numbers of transpositions is well-defined..

Theorem 5.6. Writing $\sigma \in S_n$ as a product of transpositions in different ways, σ is either always a product of an even number of transpositions, or always a product of an odd number of transpositions.

Proof. Write $\#(\sigma)$ for the number of cycles in σ in disjoint cycle decompositions, including any one-cycles. For example, $\#((12)(34)) = \#((123)) = 2$, $\#(e) = 4$. Let's see what happens to $\#(\sigma)$ if we multiply σ by a transposition $\tau = (cd)$.

- This will not affect any cycles not including c or d .
- If c, d are in the same cycle in (disjoint cycle decomposition) of σ , say $(ca_2 a_3 \cdots a_{k-1} da_{k+1} \cdots a_l)$, then

$$(ca_2 a_3 \cdots a_{k-1} da_{k+1} \cdots a_l)(cd) = (ca_{k+1} a_{k+2} \cdots a_l)(da_2 \cdots a_{k-1}),$$

so $\#(\sigma\tau) = \#(\sigma) + 1$.

- If c, d are in different cycles (possibly 1-cycle),

$$(ca_2 \cdots a_k)(db_2 \cdots b_l)(cd) = (cdb_2 \cdots b_ldca_2 \cdots a_k).$$

So $\#(\sigma\tau) = \#(\sigma) - 1$.

So far any σ and any transposition τ , $\#(\sigma) \equiv \#(\sigma\tau) + 1 \pmod{2}$. Now suppose σ is written as 2 different products of transpositions

$$\sigma = \tau_1 \cdots \tau_k = \tau'_1 \cdots \tau'_l.$$

We know by the previous theorem that $\#(\sigma)$ is uniquely determined by σ . Also we have

$$\sigma = e \cdot \tau_1 \cdots \tau_k = e \cdot \tau'_1 \cdots \tau'_l,$$

and so applying the above several times, we get

$$\#(\sigma) \equiv \#(e) + k \equiv n + k \pmod{2}; \#(\sigma) \equiv \#(e) + l \equiv n + l \pmod{2}.$$

So $n + k \equiv n + l \pmod{2} \Leftrightarrow k \equiv l \pmod{2}$. Hence k, l has the same parity. \square

Definition 5.9. Writing $\sigma \in S_n$ as a product of transpositions, $\sigma = \tau_1 \cdots \tau_k$, the *sign* of σ is defined as $\epsilon(\sigma) = (-1)^k$. If $\epsilon(\sigma) = 1$, we say σ is an *even* permutation, and odd permutation if $\epsilon(\sigma) = -1$.

Theorem 5.7. For $n \geq 2$, the sign function $\epsilon : S_n \rightarrow \langle -1 \rangle$ is a surjective homomorphism.

Proof. If σ, σ' can be written as k, l transpositions respectively, then $\sigma\sigma'$ can be written as a product of $k + l$ transpositions and $\epsilon(\sigma\sigma') = (-1)^{k+l} = (-1)^k \cdot (-1)^l = \epsilon(\sigma) \cdot \epsilon(\sigma')$. To see it is surjective, since $n \geq 2$, $\epsilon(e) = 1$ and $\epsilon(12) = -1$, so it is. \square

Definition 5.10. The *kernel* of the homomorphism ϵ is called the *alternating group*, $A_n \leq S_n$.

Proposition 5.4. $\sigma \in S_n$ is even if and only if its disjoint cycle decomposition contains an *even number* of *even* cycles.

Proof. Write

$$\sigma = \delta_1 \delta_2 \cdots \delta_k \chi_1 \chi_2 \cdots \chi_l,$$

where δ are even cycles, and χ are odd cycles. Then $\epsilon(\sigma) = (-1)^k$ and the result follows. \square

Here "even cycle" means a cycle of even number of elements.

6 Möbius group

The study of permutations of an infinite object, the functions $\mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Since \mathbb{C} has geometry unlike $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, need to restrict to functions that interact well with this geometry. Lecture 8

More precisely, we want to study functions of the form

$$f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}, \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$$

such that $ad - bc \neq 0$.

Note that

$$f(z) - f(w) = \frac{(ad - bc)(z - w)}{(cw + d)(cz + d)},$$

f is undefined at point $-d/c$, to fix this, we introduce a new point ∞ to \mathbb{C} , forming the *extended complex plane* $\hat{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$. Can visualise using *stereographic projection*.

so $f(z) = f(w)$ and f would be constant. However we need invertible functions, so we do need $ad - bc \neq 0$.

Definition 6.1. A *Möbius map* is a function $f : \hat{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{C}}$ of the form

$$f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}, a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}, ad - bc \neq 0, f\left(\frac{-d}{c}\right) = \infty,$$

with

$$f(\infty) = \begin{cases} \frac{a}{c} & \text{if } c \neq 0, \\ \infty & \text{if } c = 0. \end{cases}$$

Lemma 6.1. Möbius maps are bijections $\hat{\mathbb{C}} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{C}}$.

Proof. Note that for $f(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$,

$$f^{-1}(z) = \frac{dz - b}{-cz + a},$$

which could be checked by doing some algebras. \square

Theorem 6.2. The set of Möbius maps form a group M wrt composition.

Proof. Note that the identity is $z \mapsto z = \frac{1z+0}{0z+1}$, and by lemma they are invertible. Associativity is inherited from the structure of functions in \mathbb{C} . \square

Remark. M is not abelian. e.g. take $f_1(z) = z + 1, f_2(z) = 2z$. In dealing with Möbius maps in $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$, we use the convention $\frac{1}{\infty} = 0, \frac{1}{0} = \infty, \frac{a\infty}{c\infty} = \frac{a}{c}$.

Proposition 6.1. Every Möbius group can be written as a composition of maps of the following forms:

- (1) $f(z) = az (a \neq 0)$, a dilation/rotation.
- (2) $f(z) = z + b$, translation.
- (3) $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$, inversion.

Proof. Let

$$f(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}.$$

If $c \neq 0$, then $f(z)$ is the composition

$$z \mapsto z + \frac{d}{c} \mapsto \frac{1}{z + \frac{d}{c}} \mapsto \frac{(-ad + bc)c^{-2}}{z + \frac{d}{c}} \mapsto \frac{a}{c} + \frac{(-ad + bc)c^{-2}}{z + \frac{d}{c}} \mapsto \frac{az + b}{cz + d}.$$

If $c = 0$, $z \mapsto \frac{a}{d}z \mapsto \frac{a}{d}z + \frac{b}{d}$. \square

In particular, the set S of all dilations/rotations, translations, and inversions generate M . i.e., $\langle S \rangle = M$.

7 Lagrange's Theorem

This result allows us to study the internal structure of a group wrt a subgroup.

7.1 Cosets

Definition 7.1. Let $H \leq G$ and $g \in G$. Let $gH = \{gh : h \in H\}$, then gH is called a *left coset* of H in G . Right coset is defined similarly.

Cosets can be thought as a "translated copy" of H that may no longer be a subgroup.

Example. (1) Let $H = 2\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$, then some cosets are:

$0 + 2\mathbb{Z} = 2\mathbb{Z}$, all even integers,

$1 + 2\mathbb{Z}$ is all odd integers. Note that

$$n + 2\mathbb{Z} = \begin{cases} 2\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ 1 + 2\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Hence these are the only cosets of $2\mathbb{Z}$.

(2) Let $H = \{e, (12)\} \leq S_3$. Then $eH = H$, $(12)H = H$, $(13)H = \{(13), (123)\}$.

Some things to notice from example (2):

- $eH = H$.
- $hH = H$ whenever $h \in H$.
- $|H| = |gH|$.
- $\bigcup_{g \in G} gH = G$.

In fact,

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Theorem 7.1 (Lagrange). Let $H \leq G$ where G is finite, then

1. $|H| = |gH|$ for any $g \in G$.
2. If $g_1, g_2 \in G$, then either $g_1H = g_2H$ or $g_1H \cap g_2H = \emptyset$.
3. $\bigcup_{g \in G} gH = G$.

In particular, define the *index* of H in G to be the number of distinct cosets of H in G , denoted by $|G : H|$. Then we have

$$|G| = |G : H| |H|.$$

Cosets *pave* the group.

Proof.

1. The function $\varphi : H \rightarrow gH$ defined by $\varphi(h) = gh$ for $h \in H$, is a bijection between H and gH . Surjection is obvious since every $gh = \varphi(h) \in gH$. To show its injectivity, note that $\varphi(h_1) = \varphi(h_2) \Rightarrow gh_1 = gh_2 \Rightarrow h_1 = h_2$. Therefore, $|H| = |gH|$.
2. Suppose $g_1H \cap g_2H \neq \emptyset$. Then $\exists g \in g_1H \cap g_2H \Rightarrow g = g_1h_1 = g_2h_2$, where $h_1, h_2 \in H$. This means that $g_1 = g_2h_2h_1^{-1}$, and so $\forall h \in H, g_1h = g_2h_2h_1^{-1}h \in g_2H$.

$g_2H \Rightarrow g_1H \subseteq g_2H$. Similarly $g_2H \subseteq g_1H$, and so they are identical.

3. Given $g \in G$, then $g \in gH$ so $g \in \bigcup_{g \in G} gH \Rightarrow G \subseteq \bigcup_{g \in G} gH$. Certainly $\bigcup_{g \in G} gH \subseteq G$ since all are subsets. Hence

$$\bigcup_{g \in G} gH = G.$$

Since G is the distinct union of distinct cosets of H , $|G| = |G : H||H|$. \square

Remark. Right cosets also works, using the same arguments. However, $gH \neq Hg$ in general, since a group needs not to be abelian. For example, if $H = \{e, (12)\} \leq S_3$, the coset $(13)H = \{(13), (123)\}$ while $H(13) = \{(13), (132)\}$. Another fact to notice from this is that the set of cosets are not necessarily the same wrt left/right. H is particularly special and interesting if $gH = Hg$.

Proposition 7.1. $g_1H = g_2H \iff g_1^{-1}g_2 \in H$.

Proof. If $g_1H = g_2H$, then $g_1 = g_2h$ for some $h \in H$. Hence $g_1^{-1}g_2 = h^{-1} \in H$. Conversely if $g_1^{-1}g_2 \in H$, $g_1g_1^{-1}g_2 \in g_1H \Rightarrow g_2 \in g_1H$. By Lagrange's theorem, they are identical. \square

Take $g_1, g_2, \dots, g_{|G:H|}$ from each disjoint coset of H in G . Then we have

$$G = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^{|G:H|} g_iH,$$

where \bigsqcup is the disjoint union notation. The g_i are called *coset representation* of H in G .

Corollary 7.2. Let G be a finite group and $g \in G$, then $\text{ord}(g) \mid |G|$.

Proof. Let $H = \langle g \rangle$, then $\text{ord}(g) = |H|$ and thus $\text{ord}(g) \mid |G|$ by Lagrange's theorem. \square

Corollary 7.3. Let G be a finite group. If $g \in G$, then $g^{|G|} = e$.

Proof. $g^{|G|} = g^{\text{ord}(g)n} = e^n = e$. \square

Corollary 7.4. If $|G|$ is prime, then G is cyclic, and is generated by any non-identity element.

Proof. Since $|G| = p$, p is prime, then $|\langle g \rangle| \mid |G|$ by Lagrange. Since p is prime, then $|\langle g \rangle| = 1$ or p . Hence if $g \neq e$, then $g, e \in \langle g \rangle$ so $|\langle g \rangle| = p$, and thus $\langle g \rangle = G$. \square

7.2 An application in Number Theory

Consider $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n)$. Define $a * b = ab \pmod{n}$. This is well-defined since $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n} \wedge b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n} \Rightarrow a_1b_1 \equiv a_2b_2 \pmod{n}$. $(\mathbb{Z}_n, *)$ is not a group since 0 has no inverse.

Let $\mathbb{Z}_n^* \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_n$ be the subset of elements of \mathbb{Z}_n that have inverses. In fact, we have

Proposition 7.2. $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n : (a, n) = 1\}$.

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ such that a, n are coprime. Then $\exists b, m, ba + mn = 1 \Rightarrow b$ is the inverse of a and $\{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n : (a, n) = 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_n^*$.

Conversely if a has an inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n , then $\exists b, ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \Rightarrow \exists m, ab + mn = 1 \Rightarrow (a, n) = 1$. Hence $\mathbb{Z}_n^* \subseteq \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n : (a, n) = 1\}$. \square

Obviously $1 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$. By definition every invertible element and its inverse is in \mathbb{Z}_n^* . Any product of two invertible elements is invertible, so \mathbb{Z}_n^* is closed under $*$. Associativity is inherited from \mathbb{Z}_n , so \mathbb{Z}_n^* is a *subgroup* of \mathbb{Z}_n .

Definition 7.2 (Euler totient function). $\phi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$.

Theorem 7.5 (Fermat-Euler). Let $n \geq 1$, $N \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(N, n) = 1$, then

$$N^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ such that $N \equiv a \pmod{n}$. Then $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ and thus $a^{|\mathbb{Z}_n^*|} = a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Since $N = a + kn$,

$$N^{\phi(n)} = (a + kn)^{\phi(n)} \equiv a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

□

Take $n = p$, we get $N^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for $(N, p) = 1$.

7.3 Exploring groups using Lagrange theorem

Lagrange tells us what the possible orders of subgroups can be.

Remark. Not all possible orders have to appear.

Example. For D_{10} , the sizes of subgroups can be 1, 2, 5, 10. We have $|\{e\}| = 1$, $|\{e, g\}| = 2$, where g has order 2. This can be done since we have 5 reflections. For subgroups of order 5, they must be cyclic by corollary 7.4. We have $|\langle r \rangle| = 5$, where r is a rotation. Obviously $|D_{10}| = 10$.

7.4 Studying small groups using Lagrange's Theorem

Example. • $|G| = 1 \Rightarrow G = \{e\}$.

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- $|G| = 2 \Rightarrow G \cong C_2$ since 2 is prime.
- $|G| = 3 \Rightarrow G \cong C_3$.
- $|G| = 4$, then $G \cong C_4$ or $G \cong C_2 \times C_2$.

proof. By Lagrange, the possible orders of subgroups of G is $1(\{e\})$, $2(C_2)$, and 4. If $\exists g \in G, \text{ord } g = 4$, then $G = \{e, g, g^2, g^3\}$ and thus $G \cong C_4$. If no element has order 4, then all non-identity elements have order 2. Claim that G is abelian. Indeed, let $h, g \in G, h, g \neq e$, then $\text{ord } g = \text{ord } h = 2$ and we have

$$gh = h^2ghg^2 = h(hg)^2g = hg.$$

Take $b \neq c \in G$ such that $\text{ord } b = \text{ord } c = 2$. Since $(\langle b \rangle \cap \langle c \rangle = \{e\}) \wedge (\forall b' \in \langle b \rangle, c' \in \langle c \rangle, b'c' = c'b') \wedge (bc \neq b \wedge bc \neq c \Rightarrow \forall g \in G, g = b'c', b \in \langle b \rangle, c' \in \langle c \rangle)$, we have $G \cong \langle b \rangle \times \langle c \rangle$ and thus $G \cong C_2 \times C_2$.

- $|G| = 5$ then $G \cong C_5$. We need more tools to study groups of order ≥ 6 .

8 Quotient groups

8.1 Normal subgroups

Definition 8.1. A subgroup N of G is *normal* if $\forall g \in G, gN = Ng$. Written as $N \trianglelefteq G$.

Proposition 8.1. The followings are equivalent:

- (1) $\forall g \in G, gN = Ng$.
- (2) $\forall g \in G, \forall n \in N, g^{-1}ng \in N$.
- (3) $\forall g \in G, g^{-1}Ng = N$.

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). If $gN = Ng$, we have $\forall n \in N, ng \in Ng = gN \Rightarrow ng = gn'$ for some $n' \in N$. Hence $g^{-1}ng = g^{-1}gn' = n' \in N$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3). From (2) we know that $g^{-1}Ng \subseteq N$. Suppose $n \in N$ and let $n' = gng^{-1}$, then $n = g^{-1}n'g \in g^{-1}Ng \Rightarrow g^{-1}Ng = N$.

(3) \Rightarrow (1). Trivial. \square

Example. (1) $\{e\}$ and G are always normal.

(2) $n\mathbb{Z} \trianglelefteq \mathbb{Z}$.

(3) $A_3 \trianglelefteq S_3$, recall that A_3 is the alternating group. We have

$$A_3 = \{e, (123), (132)\}.$$

Obviously we have $eA_3 = A_3e$. We also have $(123)A_3 = A_3(123)$. Consider a transposition

$$(12)A_3 = \{(12), (23), (1)\}.$$

Similar for (13) or (23).

Proposition 8.2. (1) Any subgroup of an abelian group is normal.

(2) Any subgroup of index 2 is normal.

Proof. If G is abelian, we have $g^{-1}ng = n \in N$.

If $H \leq G$ with $|G : H| = 2$, then there are exactly two cosets in G . Obviously H itself is a coset, so by Lagrange the other coset is $G \setminus H$. This is true for both left and right cosets. \square

Proposition 8.3. If $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ is a homomorphism, then $\ker \varphi \trianglelefteq G$.

Proof. We already know that $\ker \varphi$ is a subgroup of G . Let $k \in \ker \varphi$ and $g \in G$. Consider $g^{-1}kg$:

$$\varphi(g^{-1}kg) = \varphi(g)^{-1}\varphi(k)\varphi(g) = e.$$

Hence $g^{-1}kg \in \ker \varphi$. Hence $\ker \varphi \trianglelefteq G$. \square

Example. (1) Consider $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{R}) \leq \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, where $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ is the set of all 2×2 matrices of determinant 1. Note that $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{R}) = \ker \det$, so $\text{SL}_2(\mathbb{R}) \trianglelefteq \text{GL}_2(\mathbb{R})$.

(2) $A_n \trianglelefteq S_n$. Note that A_n can be defined as the kernel of the *sign* homomorphism.

Also note that $|S_n : A_n| = 2$.

- (3) $n\mathbb{Z} \trianglelefteq \mathbb{Z}$. We can view it as $\ker \varphi : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$, where $\varphi(k) = k \bmod n$. (Or since \mathbb{Z} is abelian.)

We can use this to study groups of small orders.

Proposition 8.4. If $|G| = 6$, then $G \cong C_6 \vee G \cong D_6$.

Proof. By Lagrange, the possible orders of elements are 1, 2, 3, 6. If \exists an element g of order 6, then $G = \langle g \rangle \cong C_6$. If there does not exist such an element, then there must exist an element r of order 3, since otherwise $|G| = 2^n$. So $|\langle r \rangle| = 3$ and $|G : \langle r \rangle| = 2$, so $\langle r \rangle \trianglelefteq G$. We also have an element s of order 2 since $|G|$ is even. By previous result, $s^{-1}rs \in \langle r \rangle$. If $s^{-1}rs = e$, then $r = e$, #. If $s^{-1}rs = r$, then $sr = rs$, and $\text{ord } sr = 6$ since $(sr)^n = s^n r^n$, which means that $n = \text{lcm}(2, 3) = 6$. #. Hence the only possibility is $s^{-1}rs = r^2$. Hence $G = \langle r, s | r^3 = s^2 = e, sr = r^2s = r^{-1}s \rangle$. Hence $G \cong D_6$. \square

8.2 Quotients

Consider $n\mathbb{Z} \trianglelefteq \mathbb{Z}$. The cosets are

$$0 + n\mathbb{Z}, 1 + n\mathbb{Z}, 2 + n\mathbb{Z}, \dots, (n-1) + n\mathbb{Z}.$$

Although they are subsets of \mathbb{Z} , they behave like elements of \mathbb{Z}_n if we define addition to be

$$(k + n\mathbb{Z}) + (m + n\mathbb{Z}) = (k + m) + n\mathbb{Z}$$

which works similarly to $+_n$.

For $H \leq G$, define

$$g_1 H \cdot g_2 H := g_1 g_2 H.$$

This may not be well-defined as it may depend on choice of coset representatives g_1, g_2 . To make it well-defined, we need

$$g'_1 H = g_1 H, g'_2 H = g_2 H \implies g'_1 g'_2 H = g_1 g_2 H.$$

Note that $g'_1 = g_1 h_1$ for some $h_1 \in H$, $g'_2 = g_2 h_2$ for some $h_2 \in H$. So

$$g'_1 g'_2 H = g_1 h_1 g_2 h_2 H = g_1 h_1 g_2 H.$$

Hence it is well-defined if and only if $g_1 h_1 g_2 H = g_1 g_2 H$ for any $g_1, g_2 \in G, h_1 \in H$. i.e., $g_2^{-1} h_1 g_2 H = H \iff g_2^{-1} h_1 g_2 \in H, \forall g_1, g_2, h_1$, by proposition 7.1. Therefore, by proposition 8.1, multiplication is well-defined if and only if $H \trianglelefteq G$.

Proposition 8.5. Let $N \trianglelefteq G$. The set of (left) cosets of N in G form a group under the operation $g_1 N \cdot g_2 N = g_1 g_2 N$.

Proof. By above arguments, it is well-defined. Closure is obviously satisfied. $eN = N$ so e is the identity. We have $(gN)^{-1} = g^{-1}N$. Associativity is from G since

$$(g_1 N \cdot g_2 N) \cdot g_3 N = (g_1 g_2 N) \cdot g_3 N = g_1 g_2 g_3 N = g_1 N \cdot (g_2 N \cdot g_3 N).$$

\square

Definition 8.2. If $N \trianglelefteq G$, the group of (left) cosets of N in G is called the *quotient group* of G by N , written as G/N .

Example. 1. $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ is a group behaves like \mathbb{Z}_n . In fact, $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$. These are the only quotients of \mathbb{Z} since the only subgroups are $n\mathbb{Z}$.

2. Consider $A_3 \trianglelefteq S_3$. This gives S_3/A_3 , which has only two elements since $|S_3 : A_3| = 2$. We must have $S_3/A_3 \cong C_2$. Indeed, take a non-trivial coset $(12)A_3$, then

$$(12)A_3 \cdot (12)A_3 = (12)^2A_3 = A_3.$$

In general, $|G/N| = |G : N|$.

3. If $G = H \times K$, then $H \trianglelefteq G \wedge K \trianglelefteq G$. We have $G/H \cong K \wedge G/K \cong H$. (exercise)

4. Consider $N = \langle r^2 \rangle \leq D_8$. It is normal since $r^{-1}r^2r \in N \wedge s^{-1}r^2s = r^{-2} = r^2 \in N$. Since $\langle r, s \rangle = D_8$, $g^{-1}ng \in N, \forall g \in D_8$. (exercise)

$|N| = 2$, so $|D_8/N| = |D_8 : N| = |D_8|/|N| = 4$ by Lagrange. By section 7.4, $D_8/N \cong C_2 \times C_2$ or C_4 . Since $D_8/N = \{N, sN, rN, srN\}$, we have $(sN)^2 = N, (rN)^2 = N$ since $N = \langle r^2 \rangle$. Also, $(srN)^2 = N$ by previous result, so $\text{ord } D_8/N = 2$ so $D_8/N \cong C_2 \times C_2$.

5. (Non-example) Consider $H = \langle (12) \rangle \leq S_3$. H is not normal since $(123)H = \{(123), (13)\} \neq \{(123), (23)\} = H(123)$. Cosets are $H, (123)H, (132)H$. If we impose product on them:

$$(123)H \cdot (132)H = (123) \cdot (132)H = H,$$

$$\text{but } (13)H \cdot (132)H = (13)(132)H = (23)H \neq H.$$

Hence we cannot form the quotient.

Remark. • Some properties of G pass from G to its quotients. e.g., being abelian or finite.

- Quotients are not subgroups. They may not even be isomorphic to subgroups.
- Need to specify in which group is a subgroup normal. e.g., if $K \leq N \leq G \wedge K \trianglelefteq G$, it is not true in general that $K \trianglelefteq G$, even it is true that $N \trianglelefteq G$. Thus, normality is not transitive.
- However if $N \leq H \leq G \wedge N \trianglelefteq G$, then $N \trianglelefteq H$.

Theorem 8.1. Given $N \trianglelefteq G$, the function $\pi : G \rightarrow G/N$ that

$$\pi(g) = gN$$

is a surjective homomorphism. It is called the *quotient map*.

In particular, We have $\ker \pi = N$.

Proof. $\pi(g) \cdot \pi(h) = gN \cdot hN = ghN = \pi(gh)$, so it is a homomorphism. Clearly π is surjective since $\forall gN \in G/N, \pi(g) = gN$. Also $\pi(g) = gN = N$ if and only if $g \in N$, so $\ker \pi = N$. \square

Together with proposition 8.3:

Normal subgroups are exactly kernels of homomorphisms.

Theorem 8.2. Let $\varphi : G \rightarrow H$ be a homomorphism, then $G/\ker \varphi \cong \operatorname{Im} \varphi$.